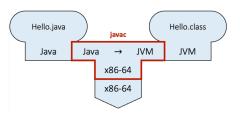
CS2030_s Reference Notes (midterms)

github.com/reidenong/cheatsheets, AY23/24 S1

1. Program and compiler Java and JVM Tombstone diagram:



2. Variables and Types Java Language

Java is a *statically* typed language, meaning variables must be declared with a type before they can be used.

Java is *strongly* typed, meaning that it enforces strict rules in its type system to ensure type safety.

Subtyping

A type S is a *subtype* of T if S can be used in any context where T is expected. This is represented by S <: T.

Whenever a supertype is needed, a subtype can be given.

Subtyping relationships are

Reflexive	for any S , S <: S
Transitive	$S <: T \text{ and } T <: U$ $\rightarrow S <: U$
Anti-Symmetric	$S <: T \text{ and } T <: S$ $\rightarrow S = T$

Primitive Subtyping



3. Functions

Abstraction Barriers enforce a separation of concerns between the implementer and client

5. Information Hiding

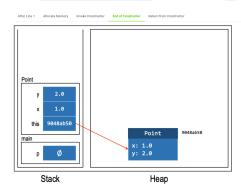
Information Hiding is violated when variables or information are exposed outside of the abstraction barrier

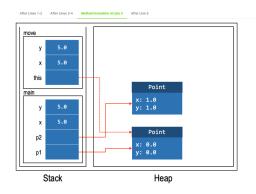
6. Tell Don't Ask

Occurs when entity A requests from another entity B and performs some action instead of telling B to do it itself

10. Stack and Heap diagrams

- Every new keyword means a new object is created in the heap
- Every method call means a new stackframe is created in the stack
- Every declaration means a new block in some method's stackframe
- Primitive type reassignment is shown as cancellation,
 ie. int x = 1; x = 2; is shown as x = ½ 2;





12. Method Overriding

Method Overriding is when a subclass provides a different implementation of a method from its superclass. It is a form of runtime polymorphism.

Method signatures include method name, number of parameters, type of parameters, order of parameters.

Method descriptors are the method signature including return type.

13. Method Overloading

Method Overloading is when a class has multiple methods with the same name but different signatures.

Overloading in Constructor Chaining:

```
class Circle {
    private Point c;
    private double r;

4

5    public Circle(Point c, double r) {
        this.c = c;
        this.r = r;
    }

9    // Overloaded constructor 1

11    public Circle(double r) {
        this(new Point(0, 0), r); // chained to Circle::Circle(Point, double)
    }

14    // Overloaded constructor 2
    public Circle() {
        this(1); // chained to Circle::Circle(double)
    }

19    :

20 }
```

14. Polymorphism

Polymorphism is the ability of an object to take on many forms, allowing us to perform a single action in different ways. This is done by defining one interface and having multiple implementations.

15. Method Invocation and Dynamic Binding Dynamic Binding Process for obj.foo(arg)

Compile Time Step:

- 1. Determine CTT(obj) and CTT(arg).
- 2. Determine all methods with the name foo in CTT(obj).

This includes all parent classes.

- 3. Determine all the methods from (2) that can accept CTT(arg) as an argument.
 - > Correct number of parameters
 - > Correct parameter types, ie. *supertype of CTT(arg)*
- 4. Determine the most specific method descriptor, else fail with compilation error.

Run Time Step:

- 1. Retrieve the method descriptor obtained from the *Compile Time Step*
- 2. Determine RTT(obj).
- 3. Starting from RTT(obj), search for the method descriptor obtained from (1).
 - > If not found, search in parent classes.

Method Specificity

 \boldsymbol{M} is more specific than \boldsymbol{N} if the arguments to \boldsymbol{M} can be passed to \boldsymbol{N} without compilation error.

ie. equals(Integer) is more specific than
equals(Object) .

16. LSP

A subclass should not break the expectations set by the superclass.

Formally, if S is a subtype of T, then any object of type T can be replaced with an object of type S without changin the desirable property of the program.

final keyword

final prevents a class from being extended, or a method from being overridden.

17. Abstract Classes

An *abstract class* is a class that cannot be instantiated. It may have multiple fields and methods, where not all methods have to be abstract. An *abstract method* is a method that has no implementation (and thus no body).

A class with at least one abstract method must be declared abstract, but a abstract class can have no abstract methods.

18. Interfaces

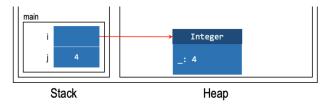
All methods in an interface are public abstract, and all fields are public static final by default. Interfaces may extend from one or more interfaces, but not classes.

19. Wrapper Classes

A class that encapsulates a type instead of field or methods.

```
\begin{array}{cccc} \text{byte} & \rightarrow & \text{Byte} & & \text{short} & \rightarrow & \text{Short} \\ \text{int} & \rightarrow & \text{Integer} & & \text{long} & \rightarrow & \text{Long} \\ \text{float} & \rightarrow & \text{Float} & & \text{double} & \rightarrow & \text{Double} \\ \text{char} & \rightarrow & \text{Character} & & \text{boolean} & \rightarrow & \text{Boolean} \\ \end{array}
```

Stack and Heap of a wrapper class:



Autoboxing and Unboxing:

Auto Boxing and Unboxing is a single step process, and all wrapper classes have no subtyping relationships with each other.

```
Integer I = 4;  // Auto-boxing
int y = I;  // Auto-unboxing
```

Note that Double d = 2 is an error, as Java cannot infer that int \rightarrow double \rightarrow Double is possible.

However, auto-unboxing can be followed by primitive subtyping, ie. the following code compiles.

```
Integer I = 4;
double d = I;
```

20. Run-Time Class Mismatch (Typecasting)

Typecasting can be used for narrowing type conversions from a superclass to a subclass, essentially asking the compiler to trust that the object is of the correct type.

Type Case Checks for casting a = (C) b

Compile Time Check:

- 1. Find CTT(b)
- - > if impossible, exit with compilation error
- 3. Find CTT(a)
- 4. Check if C is a subtype of CTT(a)
 - > if not, exit with compilation error
 - > otherwise, add run-time check for RTT(b) <: C

Run Time Check:

- 1. Find RTT(b)
- 2. Check if RTT(b) is a subtype of C
 - > if not, exit with ClassCastException

Possibility Check

To check if it is possible for RTT(b) to be subtype of C

Case 1: CTT(b) is a subtype of C
This is widening and always allowed.

Case 2: C <: CTT(b)

This is narrowing and requires runtime checks.

Case 3: C is a interface.

There may be a subtype of RTT(b) that implements C, so this is allowed but subjected to runtime checks.

Impossible Case 1: B and C are unrelated.

It is impossible for RTT(b) to be a subtype of C as the subclass of B must already extend B. As such, it cannot extend from C as well as Java does not allow double inheritance.

Impossible Case 2: C is a interface and B is a final class. Then *Case 3* is impossible as there cannot exist a subtype of CTT(b) that implements C.

21. Variance

For a complex type C,

Covariant	$[S \mathrel{<:} T] \rightarrow [C(S) \mathrel{<:} C(T)]$
Contravariant	$S <: T \rightarrow C(T) <: C(S)$
Invariant	Neither Covariant nor Contravariant

Java arrays are covariant.

There are some run-time errors that cannot be detected by compiler when having covariant producers. Consider A1 <: B and A2 <: B.

```
Al aArr = new A1[] {new A1(), new A1()};

B[] bArr = aArr;
// Assume covariant: A1[] <: B[]

bArr[0] = new A2();
// Compiles because A2 <: B, but this is a run-time error as bArr is actually an A1[] and A2 </: A1</pre>
```

There are some run-time errors that cannot be detected by compiler when having contravariant consumers (hypothetical as Java is Covariant).

Consider A1 <: B and A2 <: B.

```
B[] bArr = new B[] {new A1(), new A2()};
A1[] aArr = bArr;
// Assume contravariant: B[] <: A1[]
A1 a1 = aArr[1];
// Compiles as A1 <: A1, but this is a runtime error.</pre>
```

22. Exceptions

Unchecked Exceptions are exceptions caused by programmer error, and should not happen if perfect code is written. They are subclasses of RuntimeException, and examples include NullPointerException, IllegalArgumentException, ClassCastException.

Checked Exceptions are exceptions caused by external factors, and should be handled by the programmer. They are subclasses of Exception, and examples include InputMismatchException, FileNotFoundException.

When overriding a method that throws a checked exception, the overriding method must throw the same exception or a subclass of it.

Common Exception mistakes:

- DO NOT catch all exceptions with Exception .
- DO NOT exit the program within an exception, as it prevents the calling function from cleaning up its resources.
- DO NOT break the abstraction barrier, and handle implementation-specific exceptions within the barrier.
- DO NOT use exceptions as a control flow mechanism.

Java Errors Class

Java Errors are for situations where the program should terminate as there is no way to recover, ie.

OutOfMemoryError, StackOverflowError. They share a common superclass with exceptions called Throwable, which has getMessage():String and toString():String methods.

Java Exception Examples

ArrayStoreException is thrown when an array is assigned with an incompatible type.

```
Object[] objArr = new Integer[10];
objArr[0] = "Hello"; // Throws
ArrayStoreException
```

ClassCastException is thrown when a typecast is performed on incompatible types.

```
Object obj = "Hello";
Integer i = (Integer) obj; // Throws
ClassCastException
```

23. Generics

Generics allow classes/methods that use any reference type to be defined without resorting to using <code>Object</code>. It enforces type safety by binding the generic type to a specific given type argument at compile time. Note that primitive types cannot be passed as type parameters in Generics.

Bounded Type parameters can be used to restrict the type of the generic type parameter, ie. <T extends Number> restricts the type parameter to be a subclass of Number.

Generic array declaration is fine but instantiation is not.

```
T[] arr; // Declaration is ok
new Pair<T>[2]; // Instantiation is not
new T[2]; // Instantiation is not
```

24. Type Erasure

Essentially, all < > are removed from the code, and all type parameters are replaced with Object or a specified subtype if they are *bounded*. Note that Bounded type is limited to within brackets, ie. <S extends X > 0 S is erased to X.

Generics and arrays don't mix well together. Heap pollution occurs when a variable of a parameterized type refers to an object that is not of that type.

```
// create a new array of pairs
Pair<String, Integer>[] pairArray;
pairArray = new Pair<String, Integer>[2];

// pass around the array of pairs as an array
of object
Object[] objArray = pairArray;

// put a pair into the array -- no
ArrayStoreException!
objArray[0] = new Pair<Double, Boolean>(3.14, true);
```

```
// Heap pollution, now we get
ClassCastException
String str = pairArray[0].getFirst();
```

Arrays are *reifiable*, meaning full type information is available only at run-time. Generics are not reifiable due to type erasure, hence Java designers do not mix both.

25. Unchecked Warnings

Unchecked warnings occur when the compiler cannot guarantee type safety due to type erasure. If we are sure the code compiles with no issue and is type safe, we can dismiss it with @SuppressWarnings annotations.

Consider the folloing code in Array<T> class.

```
// Array<T> Constructor
public Array(int size) {
   /* The only way we can put an object into
array
   * is through set() and we only put object
of
   * type T inside. Hence it is safe to cast
   * Object[] to T[].
   */
   @SuppressWarnings("unchecked")
   T[] arr = (T[]) new Object[size];
   this.arr = arr;
}
```

@SuppressWarnings should only be used at the most limited scope to avoid unintentionally suppressing other valid concerns from the compiler.

Raw Types

Raw types are generic types without type arguments. Compiler cannot do any type checking, and code could bomb with ClassCastException at run-time.

Safe Varargs

@SafeVarargs is used to suppress unchecked warnings for varargs methods with generic types.

```
// Only items of type T goes into the array
@SafeVarargs
public static <T> ImmutableArray<T> of(T...
items) {
   // Do something
}
```

26. Wildcards

Wildcards are used to typecheck *generics with generics* as generics are invariant.

Upper Bounded Wildcards

Upper Bounded Wildcards are of the form
<? extends T> to restrict the type parameter to be a
subtype of T. They are Covariant, and is used for
Producers when the method will need to receive input
from all possible subtypes, ie. the Array::copyFrom
method.

Lower Bounded Wildcards

Lower Bounded Wildcards are of the form <? super T> to restrict the type parameter to be a supertype of T.

They are Contravariant, and is used for *Consumers* when the method will need to output to all possible supertypes, ie. the Array::copyTo method.

PECS

PECS is from the collection's point of view, if pulling items from a generic collection, it is a Producer and should extend; if pushing items into a generic collection, it is a Consumer and should super. If doing both, just use <T> with no wildcards.

Unbounded Wildcards

<?> is the supertype of every parameterized type of
<T> . These are useful to write in methods to take in an
Array of any type, or for declaration of fields, ie.

```
new Comparable<?>[10];
// Array of any type that implements
Comparable
Pair<?,?> p;
// Declaration is ok to take in pair of any
type.
```

The following code illustrates type safety with <?>

27. Type Inference

Type inference and the diamond operator < > means
Java can infer the RHS instantiation type from the LHS
declaration type.

```
public <T extends Circle> T bar(Array<? super T> array)

• Type Parameter (Blue)
• Target Typing (Red)
• Argument Typing (Green)
```

Given Type1 <: T <: Type2, Java infers Type1.